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ABSTRACT

From "achievement motivation" and "administration" to "Theory Z" and "viscidity and hedonic tone," this glossary defines 87 terms as they are used in educational administration. The terms include philosophical, psychological, organizational, and social concepts, but they all are employed in the theory and practice of administration. A short bibliography gives the sources of most of the definitions. (RW)

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ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

A Glossary of Basic Administration Terminology

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The formal study of administration reveals some special usages of common terms. This glossary attempts to define that special usage as it relates to educational services.

achievement motivation: behavior is oriented toward successful performance according to some criterion of excellence. Goals are set high enough to demand a determined effort, and low enough to permit some success (McClelland, 1961).

administration: the coordination of all operational elements, within the administrator's responsibility, toward the achievement of those objectives within policy guidelines. Elements include personnel, equipment, finances, facilities, etc.

administration as decision making: a central function of administrators. Edward H. Litchfield describes administration as a cycle of activities beginning and ending with decision making: (1) decision making, (2) programming, (3) communicating, (4) controlling, and (5) reappraising (Owens, 1970).

administrative principles: elements of administration, according to Henri Foyal, are: (1) to plan, (2) to organize, (3) to command, (4) to coordinate, and (5) to control (Owens, 1970).

administrative process: search for alternatives of action, by the individual or the organization. Roald F. Campbell lists five steps in the process: (1) decision making, (2) programming, (3) stimulating, (4) coordinating, and (5) appraising (Owens, 1970).

ambition: organizational roles are shaped by attitudes toward superordinates. These include: (1) upward mobiles, who accept the system, its goals and values, its authority and demands, (2) indifferents largely ignore the organization and find their satisfaction away from the job, and (3) ambivalents are tempted by the attraction of power, authority, and the prestige of success which accompanies promotion, but are not organization men (Owens, 1970).

anomie: a feeling of helplessness caused by anxiety due to lack of avenues for satisfying self-actualization needs. The term anomie was used by Elton Mayo to describe this condition (Hersey, 1972).

authority: legal, or semi-legal, right to command.

bureaucracy: an organization that consists of a highly elaborate hierarchy of authority superimposed upon a highly elaborate division of labor (Bobbitt, 1974).

bureaucratic characteristics: the basic elements of an ideal bureaucracy are listed by Robert Presthus as: (1) fixed and official jurisdictional areas, regularly ordered by rules, policies, regulations, and by-laws, (2) principles of hierarchy and levels of graded authority that ensure a firmly ordered system of superordination and subordination in which those in higher offices supervise those in lower ones, (3) administration based upon written documents, (4) administration ran by full-time, trained officials, and (5) administration planned according to stable and comprehensive general policies (Owens, 1970).

bureaucratic strengths: properly functioning, a bureaucracy has the advantages of being: (1) efficient, (2) predictable, (3) impersonal, and (4) fast (Owens, 1970).

change: in utilizing an innovation, some of the sources of pressure for change include: (1) awareness, realization of the need for a change and recognition of the possibility of facilitating that change, (2) interest, information and implications are considered, (3) evaluation, study of implications for the particular situation, (4) trial, small scale application of the idea, and (5) adoption (Owens, 1970).

climate of beliefs: a system of values which, according to Warren G. Bennis, includes the following concepts: (1) full and free communication, regardless of rank and power, (2) reliance on concensus, rather than on the more customary forms of coercion or compromise, to resolve conflict, (3) the idea that influence is based on technical competence and knowledge, rather than on the vagaries of personal whim or perogatives of power, (4) an atmosphere that permits and even encourages emotional expression, as well as task-oriented acts, (5) a basically human bias, one which accepts the inevitability of conflict between the organization and the individual, but which is at the same time willing to consider such conflicts on rational grounds (Owens, 1970).

climate types: Halpin and Croft, in a nationwide survey, identified "school profiles" which tend to cluster. They isolated six school climate profiles and called them "climate types." They are: (1) open climate, (2) autonomous climate, (3) controlled climate, (4) familiar climate, (5) parental climate, and (6)

closed climate (Halpin and Croft, 1963).

control: to direct toward desired goals.

coordination: integration of various functioning elements in the completion of an operation.

cosmopolitans and locals: individuals in organizations occupy latent roles, in respect to loyalty or attachment to the organization, that Alvin W. Gouldner has identified as: (1) cosmopolitans; those low on loyalty to the employing organization, high on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an outer reference group orientation, and (2) locals; those high on loyalty to the employing organization, low on commitment to specialized role skills, and likely to use an inner reference group orientation (Owens, 1970).

decision making: four steps identified by Edwin M. Bridges, that are typically involved in reaching a decision include: (1) defining the problem, (2) identifying possible alternatives, (3) predicting the consequences of each reasonable alternative, and (4) choosing the alternative to be followed (Owens, 1970).

discipline: the ability to move toward completion of a desired task without serious, unwarranted interruption.

domesticated vs. wild organizations: service organizations may be classified in two types: (1) domesticated organizations are protected and relatively secure. Their clients must participate, whether they want to or not, and the organization will be

perpetuated almost regardless of its performance, and (2) wild organizations select their clients from among volunteers, must struggle to survive, and their success depends largely on their own performance. The public school is an example of the first type and a private school would be an example of the second type (Owens, 1970).

economic man: behavior, in an organization, is examined by using economic man as a basis for defining rational behavior. Economic man has the following characteristics: (1) he has complete knowledge of the alternatives available to him in a situation of choice, (2) he knows the consequences of each alternative, (3) with some yardstick of utility, usually money, he can assign an order to his preferences of alternatives, and (4) he has the ability to choose the alternative that maximizes his utility (Bobbitt, 1974).

effectiveness - efficiency: effectiveness is achieved when the organization realizes its desired goals. Efficiency is defined in a mechanical model as: the least necessary expenditure of resources to attain the desired outcome. Using a model which views organizations as cooperative systems it is defined as: the organization's ability to offer inducements to organizational participants which are just enough to elicit their contributions, which, in turn, are used by the organization to generate inducements (Bobbitt, 1974).

emergent behavior: the things people do in organizations although these things are not required (Bobbitt, 1974).

equilibrium: organizational equilibrium is maintained by static or dynamic reactions to changes in the environment. In static reaction, the system responds so as to restore relationships to their original state. Dynamic reaction involves a rearrangement of the organization or a change in its goals. Richard C. Lonsdale gives three terms helpful in this area: (1) homeostasis; the tendency of an open system to regulate itself so as to stay constantly in balance, (2) feedback; the flow of information is actually having a reciprocating effect on behavior, and (3) entropy; is a measure of ignorance, disorder, disorganization, randomness, or chaos. Maximum entropy is zero organization and zero entropy is maximum organization (Owens, 1970).

executive: the characteristics of an executive, as listed by Barnard, are: (1) intelligence, (2) ability in human relations, and (3) ability to deal with the unknown/unknowable (Barnard, 1938).

finances: all monetary resources used in the completion of operations.

Fundamental interpersonal relations orientation (FIRO): a measure developed by William Shultz to describe three ways people relate to each other. The elements are: (1) power orientation, which deals with the tendency of the individual for following rules, following the leader, conforming to, manipulating, and/or controlling the power structure, (2) personalness-counterpersonalness orientation, which concerns an individual's tendency to form close personal relations, treat people differently - not on the basis of status - but on the basis of personal liking, (3) assertiveness orientation, which is a measure of the individual's tendency to express his beliefs in an open manner to others (Owens, 1970).

group cohesiveness: importance of the group to its members determines the conformity that can be demanded by its members. Dorwin Cartwright identifies four variables that determine the individual's attraction to the group: (1) his motive base for attraction; needs for affiliation, recognition, security, money, or other values that can be mediated by groups, (2) the incentive properties of the group; its goals, characteristics of its members, style of operation, prestige, or other properties of significance to his motive base, (3) his expectancy; membership will have beneficial or detrimental consequences for him, and (4) his comparison level; his conception of the level of outcomes that group membership could provide (Bobbitt, 1974).

group interdependence: types of groups have been identified by Fred Fielder as: (1) an interacting group in which the ability of one man to perform his job may depend on the fact that another has completed his share of the task, in a (2) coacting group each of the members does his job relatively independently of other team members, and (3) a counteracting group consists of individuals who are working together for the purpose of negotiating and reconciling conflicting opinions and purposes (Bobbitt, 1974).

groups: organizational groups are made up of individuals. The behavior of the individual is guided by (1) norms which are ideas that represent the group's concensus of what is proper and expected behavior, (2) deviates are the nonconformist individuals that the group constantly tries to bring into line, and (3) isolates

are the individuals that the group does not associate with or try to bring into line (Bobbitt, 1974).

halo effect: this concept, in person perception, suggests that once we attribute to another the general quality of a good person or a bad person, we tend to deduce all other qualities from this general perception (Bobbitt, 1974).

Hawthorne effect: studies of workers in a Western Electric plant, by Elton Mayo, found that changes in the environment resulted in increased production - even when the changes could have been expected to have a negative effect. It was concluded that what goes on inside a worker is more important, in terms of production, than what goes on outside the worker (Campbell, 1977).

heuristic approach: a staff development process of inquiry, study, and learning with the following characteristics: (1) it can be acquired through practice and experience, (2) it stimulates further investigation and discovery, and (3) it encourages the individual to continue learning on his own (Owens, 1970).

human relations: some of the concepts emphasized during the human relations movement included: (1) morale, (2) group dynamics, (3) democratic supervision, and (4) personnel relations (Owens, 1970).

human relations concepts of organization: discoveries that are accredited to Elton Mayo and his associates form the basis for this concept. They are: (1) the output of a worker, and the output of the organization, is determined more by his social capacity than his

physical capacity, (2) money is only one motivation for working in an organization; there are other, and perhaps more important, rewards, (3) highly specialized division of labor is not the most likely way of maximizing efficiency of an organization, and (4) individual workers react to the organization (its hierarchy, its rules, and its reward-system) not as individuals, but as members of groups (Owens, 1970).

incentive: something external to an individual that moves that person to action. An incentive is used to develop motivation.

inducement-contributions theory: the pereeived balance concept suggests a ratio between our perceived contributions to an organization and the perceived inducements that the organization gives us for our contributions (Bobbitt, 1974).

initiating structure/consideration: A manager, according to E. A. Fleishman, who scores high on initiating structure is one who defines and structures his and his subordinates' roles toward organizational goal attainment. He is actively involved in the functions of his unit. A high score on consideration indicates a manager who listens, gives information, expresses trust in subordinates, respects their ideas and has consideration for their feelings. A low consideration score indicates that the leader is impersonal (Bobbitt, 1974).

involvement: According to Amitai Etzioni, the involvement that the membership gives to an organization is a function of the type of control employed. Alienative commitment (refer to "power" for a definition of these terms) will result from coercive

power; calculative commitment, from the use of utilitarian power; and moral commitment, from the use of normative power (Bobbitt, 1974).

leadership: the ability to influence others to follow your direction.

leadership style: five main types include: (1) authoritarian, (2) democratic, (3) laissez-faire, (4) bureaucratic, and (5) charismatic. Within each style, the leader can select from four key methods to direct the group: (1) forces, (2) paternalism, (3) bargaining, and (4) mutual means (Owens, 1970).

leadership style - implications: a study by Kurt Lewin, and others, found that under autocratic leadership there was considerable resistance and aggressive behavior, under laissez-faire leadership there was frustration, lack of purpose, and indecision, and democratic leadership produced higher morale and greater achievement (Bobbitt, 1974).

line authority: direct organizational responsibility derived from your immediate superior in a chain-of-command type situation as reflected in an organizational chart. Line authority implies the right to command.

management: control of all resource elements toward successful completion of an operation. It should be noted that administration implies coordination and management implies control.

management by objectives: the process, first introduced by Peter Drucker, has essentially three steps: (1) the superior and subordinate meet and discuss goals (defined in terms of results) for the

subordinate. There are two types of goals; one for the subordinate's unit goals (as related to total organizational goals), and personal development goals for the subordinate. (2) After review, the superior and subordinate agree on goals for the subordinate in terms of results, area of activity, and performance level. (3) At a later meeting, the superior and subordinate evaluate the performance in terms of the stated goals. The emphasis is on feedback and new goals may be established for the subordinate (Owens, 1970).

management functions: the administrative management theory of Henri Fayol includes five basic elements or functions of management: (1) planning, (2) organization, (3) command, (4) coordination, and (5) control (Bobbitt, 1974).

management systems 1-4: management styles of organization are depicted, by Rensis Likert, on a continuum from System 1 through System 4. System 1 is a task-oriented, highly structured authoritarian management style, System 4 is a relationship-oriented style based on teamwork, mutual trust, and confidence. Systems 2 and 3 are intermediate stages (Hershey, 1972).

managers: the most successful manager, according to Likert, is seen by his subordinates as supportive, friendly, and helpful rather than hostile. He calls this manager employee-centered. The less effective managers are job-centered (Bobbitt, 1974).

morale: the emotional state of mind of personnel. Recent thinking has held that a happy person is a productive person. However,

some recent thinking has held that this isn't necessarily true. A person may be unhappy and productive.

motivation: something from within that moves that person to action. This may be a result of an external incentive.

motivators/hygiene: factors that lead to satisfaction (motivators) tend to be aspects of the job itself. Factors that lead to dissatisfaction (hygienes) tend to be things associated with the job environment (Bobbitt, 1974).

nomotheic/idiographic: organizational role structures and expectations represent the nomothetic dimension of the organization. Individual persons, each with their own personality structures and needs, occupy the various institutional roles which represent the idiographic dimensions of the organization.

objective/subjective rationality: in objective rationality, there is a well defined frame of reference, such as economic man, to measure all behavior, to judge its rationality. Subjective rationality is meaningful only when employed to the individual's known frame of reference (Bobbitt, 1974).

operation: some deliberately planned productive activity.

open and closed systems: a closed system is independent of its environment. An open system (such as a school) has an input-output relationship with its environment. Other characteristics of open systems have been described by Daniel E. Griffiths as: (1) they tend to maintain themselves in steady states, (2) they

are self regulating, (3) there is a equifinality in which identical results can be obtained fron different initial conditions, (4) there is a dynamic interplay of subsystems operating as functional processes, and (5) steady states are maintained partly through feedback (Owens, 1970).

organization: a group of people working together concertively toward a common goal. An informal organization will tend to be voluntary, formal groups usually official, an informal group may terminate when the membership leaves, a formal group continues beyond present membership, the task of an informal group is probably not known, or clear to outsider, the task of a formal group is usually known to outsiders, an informal group usually has no assigned status hierarchy while a formal organization does, an informal group may have little regular differentation does, an assigned work or play, in a formal organization there is a definite allocation of work responsibilities (Campbell, 1977). The characteristics of a formal organization stressed by classical theory include: (1) specialization of work, (2) span of control, (3) pyramid of control, and (4) segmented divisions (Owens, 1970).

organizational climate: some of the common factors, contributing to organizational climate were listed by J. P. Campbell as: (1) individual autonomy, the individual's ability to exercise responsibility, independence, and initiative, (2) the degree of structure imposed upon the position, the degree to which objectives and methods of the job are established and communicated by superiors, (3) reward orientation, the degree to which the

organization rewards desired behavior, (4) consideration, warmth, and support, the support and stimulation received from superiors (Fiedler, 1974).

organizational concepts: the idea that elements of the organization could be grouped and related according to function, location, etc. was advanced by Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick. They emphasized the drawing of formal charts and popularized the following concepts: (1) line and staff, (2) span of control, (3) unity of command, and (4) delegation of responsibility (Owens, 1970).

organizational health: the healthy organization not only survives in its environment, but it continues to cope adequately over the long term, and continually develops and extends its surviving and coping abilities. Short term operations may be effective or ineffective, but continued survival, coping, and growth are taking place. An organization's health depends on its effectiveness in accomplishing these essentials: (1) it achieves its goals, (2) maintains itself internally, and (3) adapts to its environment (Owens, 1970).

organizational imperatives for survival: (1) the internal system must continue operating and meeting a balance of individual and organizational needs (this is what Warren G. Bennis calls reciprocity), (2) the organization must conform to its environment (Owens, 1970).

organizational legitimacy/viability: (1) legitimacy is established when the society finds that the organization's output fills a

need, (2) viability means that over the long term, an organization obtains the resources it needs for production and its own survival (Bobbitt, 1974).

organizational types: the early theoretician, Max Weber, classified three types of organizations: (1) charismatic organizations, in which there is a single leader to whom everyone owed loyalty and allegiance, (2) traditional organizations, such as the empires of hereditary landowners in which the right to occupy managerial positions was inherited and was handed down from generation to generation, and (3) bureaucracies, which are designed to make maximum use of administrative specialists who have a high level of expertise (Owens, 1970).

PERT chart: a flow chart on which every step of a sequence is placed, what is to be done in each step, by whom, and when, is carefully specified (Owens, 1970).

participatory management: the inclusion of all organizational personnel in management decisions. Democratic processes, committee participation, etc. are used to involve personnel in management. However, there are some administrative decisions that must be made by the top administrator in the organization and that person has ultimate responsibility for all decisions (Bobbitt, 1974 and Fiedler, 1974).

personnel: all individuals formally employed by the organization.

policy: a plan of action designed to accomplish the objectives of the

organization. A well composed policy statement should anticipate and solve problems in advance.

power types: organizations use power to make lower-level participants comply. Amitai Etzioni has classified organizations based on the type of power used: (1) coercive; the use of threats of bodily harm. (2) utilitarian; the use of economic rewards, and (3) normative; the use of symbolic rewards, such as status (Bobbitt, 1974).

professional values: professionalism depends on the degree to which a person has internalized values pertinent to his profession. George Strauss has identified four pertinent value areas: (1) expertise, (2) autonomy, (3) commitment to profession, and (4) responsibility to society (Bobbitt, 1974).

rapport: an established relationship that permits communication conducive to organizational purposes.

resource: any element, person, equipment, material, facility, etc. useful in performing operational functions of the organization.

responsibility: compulsion to duty. Responsibility may come from several directions including organizational responsibility, ethical responsibility, professional responsibility, etc.

role concepts: the term "role" is defined by Bobbitt as "the group's prescriptions for each of the positions in the group." Renato Tagiuri cites seven interacting componets of the role: (1) role expectation, (2) role interpretation, (3) role conception,

(4) role acceptance, (5) role behavior, (6) observed role behavior, and (7) role appraisal (Bobbitt, 1974).

scientific management: developed by Frederick W. Taylor primarily to reduce the unit cost in factory production. Two of his thirteen steps are: (1) distributing minute, specialized tasks, which when taken together would get a job done, and (2) coordinating or ordering these numerous small specialized tasks to accomplish the entire job (Owens, 1970).

Harrington Emerson listed twelve basic principles which can be divided into four areas: (1) development of a science to replace the rule-of-thumb knowledge of the workman, (2) scientific selection and development of the workman, (3) unification of the scientifically selected workman and the science, and (4) division of the work into planning (by the manager) and execution (by the worker). These principles were designed to maximize efficiency (Bobbitt, 1974).

sensitivity training: the group dynamics studies by Kurt Lewin, developed the concept of sensitivity training which usually takes place in T-groups. the goals are: (1) to incre se self-insight concerning one's own behavior in a social context, (2) to increase sensitivity to the behavior of others, (3) to increase awareness of processes that facilitate or inhibit group functioning, (4) to increase diagnostic and action orientated skills in social, interpersonal, and intergroup situations (Bobbitt, 1974).

social reciprocity: the norm of social reciprocity dictates that a person or social unit that receives social value or satisfaction from another is obligated to reciprocate, or repay (Bobbitt, 1974).

social system: is described by Daniel E. Griffiths as the organization (system) existing in the environment (suprasystem) and having within it a subsystem (administrative apparatus). In a more general sense a social system could be thought of as two or more people having mutual interaction for a meaningful purpose. Phillip Selznick lists five needs for a social system model: (1) the security of the organization as a whole, (2) the stability of the lines of authority and communication, (3) the stability of informal relations within the organization, (4) the continuity of policy and the sources of its determination, and (5) a homogeneity of outlook with respect to the meaning and role of the organization (Owens, 1970).

span-of-control: the number of individuals working under the direct supervision of one person. Some thinking holds that this number should be small, perhaps six to twelve, in order to permit a closer interaction between the supervision and each of the individuals reporting to him. On the other hand, a larger number within the span-of-control puts the supervisor in direct contact with a wider range of personnel and activities, and probably removes the need for additional intermediary supervisors.

staff authority: advisory responsibility. Staff authority does not imply the right to command.

supervision: getting work done through others. The supervisor is responsible for assigning personnel to operations and then checking to insure completion of operations.

success: completion of an operation in such a manner as to assure the realization of objectives as specified in organizational policy.

Theory X: the concepts of Theory X - Theory Y were developed by Douglas McGregor to describe two different viewpoints as to the nature of man. Theory X holds that: (1) man inherently dislikes work and will avoid work, (2) because he dislikes work, man must be coerced, controlled, etc. to get him to work toward achieving goals, (3) the average man prefers to be directed, he wishes to avoid responsibility, he has little ambition, he wants security (Bobbitt, 1974).

Theory Y: the concept of man's nature that was preferred by Douglas McGregor held that: (1) work is as natural as play, (2) external control is not the only way to bring about effort toward goals. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed, and commitment is a function of rewards, and (3) the average man seeks responsibility. His avoidance is a result of frustration caused by management. His imagination and ingenuity are rarely used, therefore he is frustrated and rebels (Bobbitt, 1974).

Theory Z: as an alternative to Theories X and Y, sees man as a situationist who is open to both good and evil. This theory contends that: (1) man has a will, (2) he is open to good and evil,

(3) situation drives man, (4) reason motivates him, (5) interdependence is man's basic mode of interaction, (6) interaction is man's social unit of importance, and (7) objective best describes man's view of man (Reddin, 1970).

tractive/dynamic behavior: a continuum, described by Ben M. Harris, differentiating between change oriented behavior and maintenance oriented behavior. Tractive behavior would tend to resist, enforce or to codify. Dynamic behavior would tend to up-grade, to restructure, or to innovate (Owens, 1970).

trained incapacity: rules prescribe the behavior of a member of an organization, obedience leads to reliability, but it can also lead to rigidity and inability to respond to changing circumstances. Robert K. Merton describes it as a state in which abilities function as inadequacies or blind spots (Bobbitt, 1974).

Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model: developed largely by W. J. Reddin, it incorporates his 3-D Management Style Theory. This theory was the first to add an effectiveness dimension to the task and relationships dimensions of earlier models (Hershey, 1972 and Reddin, 1970).

viscidity and hedonic tone: terms employed by John K. Hemphill to describe good characteristics: (1) viscidity; cohesion that group members feel, and (2) hedonic tone; feeling of satisfaction that individuals receive from being members of the group (Owens, 1970).

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